A Not-so-brief Introduction to R

Sean Davis with large contributions by Naomi Altman and Mark Reimers

> National Cancer Institute National Institutes of Health sdavis2@mail.nih.gov

> > June 20, 2013

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What is R?

- A software package
- A programming language
- A toolkit for developing statistical and analytical tools
- An extensive library of statistical and mathematical software and algorithms
- A scripting language
- ...

Why R?

- R is cross-platform and runs on Windows, Mac, and Linux (as well as more obscure systems).
- R provides a vast number of useful statistical tools, many of which have been painstakingly tested.
- R produces publication-quality graphics in a variety of formats.
- R plays well with FORTRAN, C, and scripts in many languages.
- R scales, making it useful for small and large projects. It is NOT Excel.
- R eschews the GUI.

Anecdote

I can develop code for analysis on my Mac laptop. I can then install the *same* code on our 20k core cluster and run it in parallel on 100 samples, monitor the process, and then update a database with R when complete.

Why Not R?

- R cannot do everything.
- R is not always the "best" tool for the job.
- R will not hold your hand.
- The documentation can be opaque.
- R can drive you crazy (on a good day) or age you prematurely (on a bad one).
- Finding the right package to do the job you want to do can be challenging; worse, some contributed packages are unreliable.
- R eschews the GUI.

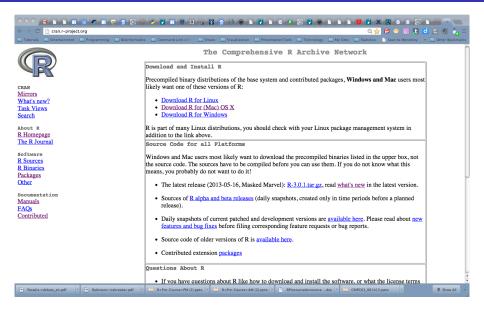
R License and the Open Source Ideal

- R is free!
- Distributed under GNU license
 - You may download the source code.
 - You may modify the source code to your heart's content.
 - You may distribute the modified source code and even charge money for it, but you must distribute the modified source code under the original GNU license

Take-home Message

This license means that R will always be available, will always be open source, and can grow organically without constraint.

Installing R



Starting R

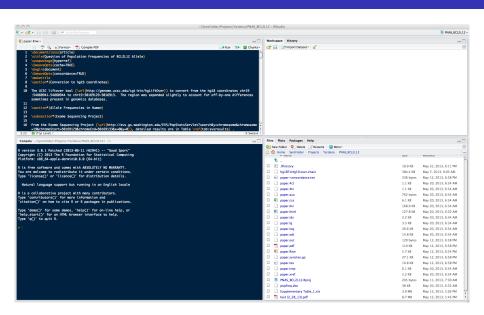
Depends on operating system and interface

Linux command line

\$ R

• In this course, we will largely be using a GUI called RStudio

The RStudio Interface



Getting Started

- R Commands are either:
 - Assignments

```
> x = 1
> y <- 2
```

2 Expressions

```
> 1 + pi + sin(3.7)
[1] 3.611757
```

- The "<-" and "=" are both assignment operators.
- The standard R prompt is a ">" sign.
- If a line is not a complete R command, R will continue the next line with a "+".

```
> 1 + pi +
+ sin(3.7)
```

Rules for Names in R

- Any combination of letters, numbers, underscore, and "."
- May not start with numbers, underscore.
- R is case-sensitive.

Examples

```
pi
x
camelCaps
my_stuff
MY_Stuff
this.is.the.name.of.the.man
ABC123
abc1234asdf
.hi
```

R Help Functions

 If you know the name of the function or object on which you want help:

```
> help(print)
> help('print')
> ?print
```

 If you do not know the name of the function or object on which you want help:

```
> help.search('microarray')
> RSiteSearch('microarray')
```

 Many online resources which you will collect over the space of the course

Using Help

I strongly recommend using help(newfunction) for all functions that are new or unfamiliar to you.

Vectors

• In R, even a single value is a vector with length=1.

```
> z = 1
> z
[1] 1
> length(z)
```

- Vectors can contain numbers, strings (character data), or logical values (TRUE and FALSE)
- Vectors cannot contain a mix of types!

Character Vectors

Character vectors are entered with each value surrounded by single or double quotes; either is acceptable, but they must match. They are always displayed by R with double quotes.

Vectors

Example Vectors

```
> # examples of vectors
> c('hello','world')
[1] "hello" "world"
> c(1,3,4,5,1,2)
[1] 1 3 4 5 1 2
> c(1.12341e7,78234.126)
[1] 11234100.00 78234.13
> c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE, TRUE)
[1]
    TRUE FALSE TRUE
                      TRUE
> # note how in the next case the TRUE is converted to "TRUE"
> c(TRUE, 'hello')
[1] "TRUE" "hello"
```

Regular Sequences

```
> # create a vector of integers from 1 to 10
> x = 1:10
> # and backwards
> x = 10:1
> # create a vector of numbers from 1 to 4 skipping by 0.3
> y = seq(1,4,0.3)
> # create a sequence by concatenating two other sequences
> z = c(y,x)
> z
[1] 1.0 1.3 1.6 1.9 2.2 2.5 2.8 3.1 3.4 3.7 4.0 10.0 9.0 8.0 7.0
[16] 6.0 5.0 4.0 3.0 2.0 1.0
```

Vector Operations

- Operations on a single vector are typically done element-by-element
- If the operation involves two vectors:
 - Same length: R simply applies the operation to each pair of elements.
 - Different lengths, but one length a multiple of the other: R reuses the shorter vector as needed
 - Different lengths, but one length *not* a multiple of the other: R reuses the shorter vector as needed *and* delivers a warning
- Typical operations include multiplication ("*"), addition, subtraction, division, exponentiation (" ^"), but many operations in R operate on vectors and are then called "vectorized".

Summary of Simple Data Types

Data type	Stores
real	floating point numbers
integer	integers
complex	complex numbers
factor	categorical data
character	strings
logical	TRUE or FALSE
NA	missing
NULL	empty
function	function type

Vector Operations

```
> x = 1:10
> x+x
 [1] 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20
> y = 7
> x * y
 [1] 7 14 21 28 35 42 49 56 63 70
> y = c(1,2,3)
> z = x * y
> length(z)
[1] 10
> z
 [1]
    1 4 9 4 10 18 7 16 27 10
```

Logical Vectors

Logical vectors are vectors composed on only the values TRUE and FALSE. Note the all-upper-case and no quotation marks.

```
> a = c(TRUE, FALSE, TRUE)
> # we can also create a logical vector from a numeric vector
> # 0 = false, everything else is 1
> b = c(1.0.217)
> d = as.logical(b)
> d
[1]
    TRUE FALSE TRUE
> # test if a and d are the same at every element
> all.equal(a,d)
[1] TRUE
> # We can also convert from logical to numeric
> as.numeric(a)
[1] 1 0 1
```

Logical Operators

Some operators like <, >, ==, >=, <=, != can be used to create logical vectors.

```
> # create a numeric vector
> x = 1:10
> # testing whether x > 5 creates a logical vector
> x > 5
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE
> x <= 5
[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> x != 5
[1] TRUE TRUE TRUE TRUE FALSE TRUE TRUE
                                            TRUE TRUE TRUE
> x == 5
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> # we can also assign the results to a variable
> y = (x == 5)
> y
```

Indexing Vectors

- In programming, an index is used to refer to a specific element or set of elements in an vector (or other data structure).
- R uses [and] to perform indexing.

```
> x = seq(0,1,0.1)
> # create a new vector from the 4th element of x
> x[4]
[1] 0.3
```

Indexing can use other vectors for the indexing

```
> x[c(3,5,6)]
[1] 0.2 0.4 0.5
> y = 3:6
> x[y]
[1] 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5
```

Indexing Vectors and Logical Vectors

Combining the concept of indexing with the concept of logical vectors results in a very power combination.

```
> # use help('rnorm') to figure out what is happening next
> myvec = rnorm(10)
> # create logical vector that is TRUE where myvec is >0.25
> gt1 = (myvec > 0.25)
> sum(gt1)
Γ17 4
> # and use our logical vector to create a vector of myvec values that are >0.25
> myvec[gt1]
[1] 0.3237475 0.6520995 0.9675606 0.3100266
> # or <=0.25 using the logical "not" operator, "!"
> myvec[!gt1]
[1] -0.9934311 -0.1788812 0.2031855 -1.7973919 -2.0211704 -1.0011444
> # shorter, one line approach
> myvec[myvec > 0.25]
[1] 0.3237475 0.6520995 0.9675606 0.3100266
```

Concatenating Strings

R uses the paste function to concatenate strings.

```
> paste("abc","def")
[1] "abc def"
> paste("abc","def",sep="THISSEP")
[1] "abcTHISSEPdef"
> paste0("abc", "def")
[1] "abcdef"
> paste(c("X","Y"),1:10)
 [1] "X 1" "Y 2" "X 3" "Y 4" "X 5" "Y 6" "X 7" "Y 8" "X 9" "Y 10"
> paste(c("X","Y"),1:10,sep="_")
 [1] "X 1" "Y 2" "X 3" "Y 4" "X 5" "Y 6" "X 7" "Y 8" "X 9" "Y 10"
```

More String Functions

Number of characters in a string

```
> nchar('abc')
[1] 3
> nchar(c('abc','d',123456))
[1] 3 1 6
```

Extract substrings

```
> substr('This is a good sentence.',start=10,stop=15)
[1] " good "
```

String replacement

```
> sub('This','That','This is a good sentence.')
[1] "That is a good sentence."
```

Finding matching strings

```
> grep('bcd',c('abcdef','abcd','bcde','cdef','defg'))
[1] 1 2 3
> grep('bcd',c('abcdef','abcd','bcde','cdef','defg'),value=TRUE)
[1] "abcdef" "abcd" "bcde"
```

Missing Values, AKA "NA"

R has a special value, "NA", that represents a "missing" value in a vector or other data structure.

```
> x = 1:5
> x
[1] 1 2 3 4 5
> length(x)
[1] 5
> is.na(x)
[1] FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> x[2] = NA
> x
[1] 1 NA 3 4 5
> length(x)
[1] 5
> is.na(x)
[1] FALSE TRUE FALSE FALSE FALSE
> x[!is.na(x)]
[1] 1 3 4 5
```

Factors

- A factor is a special type of vector, normally used to hold a categorical variable in many statistical functions.
- Such vectors have class "factor".
- Factors are primarily used in Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). When a factor is used as a predictor variable, the corresponding indicator variables are created.

Note of caution

Factors in R often *appear* to be character vectors when printed, but you will notice that they do not have double quotes around them. They are stored in R as numbers with a key name, so sometimes you will note that the factor *behaves* like a numeric vector.

Factors in Practice

```
> # create the character vector
> citizen<-c("uk","us","no","au","uk","us","us","no","au")</pre>
> # convert to factor
> citizenf<-factor(citizen)
> citizen
[1] "uk" "us" "no" "au" "uk" "us" "us" "no" "au"
> citizenf
[1] uk us no au uk us us no au
Levels: au no uk us
> # convert factor back to character vector
> as.character(citizenf)
[1] "uk" "us" "no" "au" "uk" "us" "us" "no" "au"
> # convert to numeric vector
> as.numeric(citizenf)
[1] 3 4 2 1 3 4 4 2 1
```

Factors in Practice

```
> # R stores many data structures as vectors with "attributes" and "class"
> attributes(citizenf)
$levels
[1] "au" "no" "uk" "us"
$class
[1] "factor"
> class(citizenf)
[1] "factor"
> # note that after unclassing, we can see the
> # underlying numeric structure again
> unclass(citizenf)
[1] 3 4 2 1 3 4 4 2 1
attr(,"levels")
[1] "au" "no" "uk" "us"
> table(citizenf)
citizenf
an no nk ns
```

2 2 2 3

Matrices and Data Frames

- A matrix is a rectangular array. It can be viewed as a collection of column vectors all of the same length and the same type (i.e. numeric, character or logical).
- A data frame is also a rectangular array. All of the columns must be the same length, but they may be of different types.
- The rows and columns of a matrix or data frame can be given names.
- However these are implemented differently in R; many operations will work for one but not both.

Matrix Operations

```
> x<-1:10
> y<-rnorm(10)
> # make a matrix by column binding two numeric vectors
> mat<-cbind(x,y)</pre>
> mat.
 [1,] 1 -0.07766897
 [2,] 2 0.32251675
 [3,] 3 -0.93330800
 [4,] 4 0.08720295
 [5,] 5 0.22420746
 [6,] 6 -1.44783676
 [7,] 7 -0.27375874
 [8.] 8 -0.71951793
 [9,] 9 0.42300744
[10,] 10 0.56283346
> # And the names of the rows and columns
> rownames(mat)
NULT.
> colnames(mat)
[1] "x" "y"
```

Matrix Operations

Indexing for matrices works as for vectors except that we now need to include both the row and column (in that order).

```
> # The 2nd element of the 1st row of mat
> mat[1,2]
-0.07766897
> # The first ROW of mat
> mat[1,]
 1.00000000 -0.07766897
> # The first COLUMN of mat
> mat[.1]
 [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
> # and all elements of mat that are > 4; note no comma
> mat[mat>4]
[1] 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

Matrix Operations

```
> # create a matrix with 2 columns and 10 rows
> # filled with random normal deviates
> m = matrix(rnorm(20),nrow=10)
> # multiply all values in the matrix by 20
> m = m*20
> # and add 100 to the first column of m
> m[,1] = m[,1] + 100
> # summarize m
> summary(m)
      V1
                    V2
Min. : 72.34 Min. :-23.0868
1st Qu.: 93.89 1st Qu.:-13.1655
Median: 101.82 Median: 1.8782
Mean : 99.44 Mean : -0.0417
3rd Qu.:108.63 3rd Qu.: 5.2301
Max. :115.28 Max. : 27.7691
```

Matrices Versus Data Frames

```
> mat<-cbind(x,y)</pre>
> class(mat[,1])
[1] "numeric"
> z = paste0('a',1:10)
> tab<-cbind(x,y,z)</pre>
> class(tab)
   "matrix"
> mode(tab[,1])
[1] "character"
> head(tab,4)
[1,] "1" "-0.0776689734184697"
                                 "a1"
[2,] "2" "0.322516745291016"
                                  "a2"
[3,] "3" "-0.933307997583061"
                                  "a3"
[4,] "4" "0.0872029450940778"
                                  "a4"
```

Matrices Versus Data Frames

```
> tab<-data.frame(x,y,z)</pre>
> class(tab)
[1] "data.frame"
> head(tab)
1 1 -0.07766897 a1
2 2 0.32251675 a2
3 3 -0.93330800 a3
4 4 0.08720295 a4
5 5 0.22420746 a5
6 6 -1.44783676 a6
> mode(tab[.1])
[1] "numeric"
> class(tab[,3])
[1] "factor"
> rownames(tab)
 [1] "1" "2" "3" "4" "5" "6" "7" "8" "9"
> rownames(tab)<-paste0("row",1:10)</pre>
> rownames(tab)
 [1] "row1" "row2" "row3" "row4" "row5" "row6" "row7" "row8" "row9"
[10] "row10"
```

Data Frames, Continued

 Data frame columns can be refered to by name using the "dollar sign" operator

```
> tab$x
```

```
[1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

> tab\$y

[7] -0.27375874 -0.71951793 0.42300744 0.56283346

 Column names can be set, which can be useful for referring to data later

```
> colnames(tab)
[1] "x" "y" "z"
> colnames(tab) = paste0('col',1:3)
```

Exercise: Subsetting Data Frames

Try these

- > ncol(tab)
- > nrow(tab)
- > dim(tab)
- > summary(tab)
- > tab[1:3,]
- > tab[1:3,
- > tab[,2:3]
- > tab[,1]>7
- > tab[tab[,1]>7,]
- > tab[tab[,1]>7,3]
- > tab[tab[,1]>7,2:3]
- > tab[tab\$x>7,3]
- > tab\$z[tab\$x>3]

Reading and Writing Data Frames to Disk

 The write.table function and friends write a data.frame or matrix to disk as a text file.

```
> write.table(tab,file='tab.txt',sep="\t",col.names=TRUE)
> # remove tab from the workspace
> rm(tab)
> # make sure it is gone
> ls(pattern="tab")
character(0)
```

 The read.table function and friends read a data.frame or matrix from a text file.

Lists

- A list is a collection of objects that may be the same or different types.
- The objects generally have names, and may be indexed either by name (e.g. my.list\$name3) or component number (e.g. my.list[[3]]).
- A data frame is a list of matched column vectors.

Lists in Practice

• Create a list, noting the different data types involved.

```
> a = list(1,"b",c(1,2,3))
> a
[[1]]
Γ17 1
[[2]]
[1] "b"
[[3]]
[1] 1 2 3
> length(a)
[1] 3
> class(a)
[1] "list"
> a[[3]]
[1] 1 2 3
```

Lists in Practice

• A data frame is a list.

```
> # test if our friend "tab" is a list
> is.list(tab)
[1] TRUE
> tab[[2]]
  [1] -0.07766897  0.32251675 -0.93330800  0.08720295  0.22420746 -1.44783676
[7] -0.27375874 -0.71951793  0.42300744  0.56283346
> names(tab)
[1] "col1" "col2" "col3"
```

Summary of Simple Data Types

Data type	Stores
real	floating point numbers
integer	integers
complex	complex numbers
factor	categorical data
character	strings
logical	TRUE or FALSE
NA	missing
NULL	empty
function	function type

Summary of Aggregate Data Types

Data type	Stores
vector	one-dimensional data, single data type
matrix	two-dimensional data, single data type
data frame	two-dimensional data, multiple data types
list	list of data types, not all need to be the same type
object	a list with attributes and potentially slots and methods

Basic Plot Functions

- The command plot(x,y) will plot vector x as the independent variable and vector y as the dependent variable.
- Within the command line, you can specify the title of the graph, the name of the x-axis, and the name of the y-axis.
 - main='title'
 - xlab='name of x axis'
 - ylab='name of y axis'
- The command lines(x,y) adds a line segment to the plot.
- The command points(x,y) adds points to the plot.
- A legend can be created using legend.

demo

> demo(graphics)

Simple Plotting Example

Try this yourself:

> lines(x,y,col=3)

```
> x = 1:100
> y = rnorm(100,3,1) # 100 random normal deviates with mean=3, sd=1
> plot(x,y)
> plot(x,y,main='My First Plot')
> # change point type
> plot(x,y,pch=3)
> # change color
> plot(x,y,pch=4,col=2)
> # draw lines between points
```

More Plotting

```
> z=sort(y)
> # plot a sorted variable vs x
> plot(x,z,main='Random Normal Numbers',
+ xlab='Index',ylab='Random Number')
> # another example
> plot(-4:4,-4:4)
> # and add a point at (0,2) to the plot
> points(0,2,pch=6,col=12)
```

More Plotting

```
> # check margin and outer margin settings
> par(c("mar", "oma"))
> plot(x,y)
> par(oma=c(1,1,1,1)) # set outer margin
> plot(x,y)
> par(mar=c(2.5,2.1,2.1,1)) # set margin
> plot(x,y)
> # A basic histogram
> hist(z, main="Histogram",
+ sub="Random normal")
> # A "density" plot
> plot(density(z), main="Density plot",
  sub="Random normal")
> # A smaller "bandwidth" to capture more detail
> plot(density(z, adjust=0.5),
   sub="smaller bandwidth")
```

Graphics Devices and Saving Plots

- to make a plot directly to a file use: png(), postscript(), etc.
- R can have multiple graphics "devices" open.
 - To see a list of active devices: dev.list()
 - To close the most recent device: dev.off()
 - To close device 5: dev.off(5)
 - To use device 5: dev.set(5)

More Plotting

- Save a png image to a file
 - > png(file="myplot.png",width=480,height=480)
 > plot(density(z,adjust=2.0),sub="larger bandwidth")
 - > dev.off()
- On your own, save a pdf to a file. NOTE: The dimensions in pdf()
 are in inches
- Multiple plots on the same page:
 - > par(mfrow=c(2,1))
 - > plot(density(z,adjust=2.0),sub="larger bandwidth")
 - > hist(z)
 - > # use dev.off() to turn off the two-row plotting

R Graphics Galleries and Resources

Visit these sites for some ideas.

- http://www.sr.bham.ac.uk/~ajrs/R/r-gallery.html
- http://gallery.r-enthusiasts.com/
- http://cran.r-project.org/web/views/Graphics.html

Control Structures in R

- R has multiple types of control structures that allows for sequential evaluation of statements.
- For loops

```
for (x in set) {operations}
```

while loops

```
while (x in condition) {operations}
```

• If statements (conditional)

```
if (condition) {
some operations
} else { other operations }
```

Control Structure and Looping Examples

Control Structure and Looping Examples

```
> # loop over a character vector
> y<-c('a','b','hi there')
> for (i in y) print(i)
> # and a while loop
> j<-1
> while(j<10) { # do this while j<10
+ print(j)
+ j<-j+2} # at each iteration, increase j by 2</pre>
```

Why Does R Have Apply Functions

- Often we want to apply the same function to all the rows or columns of a matrix, or all the elements of a list.
- We could do this in a loop, but loops take a lot of time in an interpreted language like R.
- R has more efficient built-in operators, the apply functions.

example

If mat is a matrix and fun is a function (such as mean, var, lm ...) that takes a vector as its argument, then you can:

```
apply(mat,1,fun) # over rows--second argument is 1
apply(mat,2,fun) # over columns--second argument is 2
```

In either case, the output is a vector.

Apply Function Exercise

- Using the matrix and rnorm functions, create a matrix with 20 rows and 10 columns (200 values total) of random normal deviates.
- 2 Compute the mean for each row of the matrix.
- Ompute the median for each column.

Related Apply Functions

- lapply(list, function) applies the function to every element of list
- sapply(list or vector, function) applies the function to every element of list or vector, and returns a vector, when possible (easier to process)
- tapply(x, factor, fun) uses the factor to split vector x into groups, and then applies fun to each group

Related Apply Function Examples

```
> # create a list
> my.list <- list(a=1:3,b=5:10,c=11:20)
> my.list
> # Get the mean for each member of the list
> # return a vector
> sapply( my.list, mean)
> # Get the full summary for each member of
> # the list, returned as a list
> lapply( my.list, summary)
> # Find the mean for each group defined by a factor
> my.vector <- 1:10
> my.factor <- factor(
+ c(1,1,1,2,2,2,3,3,3,3))
> tapply(my.vector, my.factor, mean)
```

Function Overview

• Functions are objects and are assigned to names, just like data.

```
myFunction = function(argument1,argument2) {
   expression1
   expression2
}
```

- We write functions for anything we need to do again and again.
- You may test your commands interactively at first, and then use the history() feature and an editor to create the function.
- It is wise to include a comment at the start of each function to say what it does and to document functions of more than a few lines.

Example Functions

You can use the edit() function to make changes to a function. The following command will open a window, allow you to make changes, and assign the result to a new function, add2.

```
> add2 = edit(add1)
```

Further Reading

The amount of learning material for R is simply astonishing!

- Thomas Girke's R and Bioconductor Manual
- A HUGE collection of contributed R documentation and tutorials
- Bioconductor course materials
- Sean Davis' website
- The Official R Manuals